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IV.—*Wanderings and Adventures in the Interior of Southern Africa.* By A. Steedman. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 688. London. 1835.

As the previous Analysis passed from our hands, the subject of the present one was placed in them. It is in all respects a more important work than Mr. Moodie's; in particular, as comprising details concerning a larger portion of the Cape Colony. For publication here, accordingly, we select some extracts, the first of which brings within a limited compass the chief facts regarding the Caffer (Kafir) tribes who have been lately found such formidable enemies to our colonists in this direction.

"Caffraria extends from the Keiskamma river" (by the new arrangements the Kei), "which separates it from the Cape Colony, to an undefined line somewhere on the south side of Delagoa Bay. Its extent inland is not correctly ascertained. Its western boundary is supposed to be near the source of the Orange River, which flows through a vast extent of country into the Atlantic Ocean; and the Mapoota, which empties itself into Delagoa Bay.

"Four principal nations, originally of one family, as can be proved by the genealogical tables of their chieftains for sixteen generations past, inhabit this country; and although the boundaries of their respective districts are not settled with very minute accuracy, the following statements may be relied on as coming near the truth. First, the *Amakosa* tribes, whose 'Umkumkani,' or sovereign, is (was) Hintza, extended from the colony to the mouth of the Bashee river. The subordinate chiefs of this division are the sons of the late Islambia, the sons of Gaika, Pato, Kama, Congo, Enou, Duchani, Botuman, and Phundis.

"Their want of skill in computation, and their ignorance of the real number of people that are under the command of the different chiefs, make it very difficult to ascertain with correctness the amount of the population of their country. Though the following calculation of the strength and numbers of those people may not therefore be quite correct, yet it is as near so as circumstances will permit it to be made, and will afford a pretty accurate knowledge of the strength of each chief. The whole population of the west part of Cafferland appears thus to amount to 150,000 men, women, and children. The male population is about 25,000, of whom about 16,000 only are warriors; but when any favourite expedition is engaged in, many others flock to the standard of their chiefs, and swell their ranks to a greater number.

"The following is the estimated population of the Amakosa nation:

Under whose Command.	Men.	Women and Children.	Total.
U' Gaika's sons and uncles . . .	6000	30,000	36,000
U' Botuman . . .	2000	10,000	12,000
U' Queno . . .	3000	15,000	18,000
U' Dushanie and children . . .	4000	20,000	24,000
Un Thlambe and children . . .	5000	25,000	30,000
Un Phundis . . .	2000	10,000	12,000
Congo and family . . .	3000	15,000	18,000
Total	25,000	125,000	150,000

“ ‘A tradition exists among the Amakosa, in reference to their origin, that the first Great Chief came out of a cave, called U' Daliwe, Dala being a word they used for the Creator; and Uka Dalwa the creation.’\* This cave they describe as being situated to the eastward, from whence the sun issues every morning to warm and enlighten the world.

“ The Amatembu tribes form the great second division, commonly called Tambookies; they dwell near the Bashee River, and extend inland as far as the country of the Karroo desert; they also inhabit the country north and west of the Amakosa: their Umkumkani, who died in 1830, was Vossani, the brother and successor of Vossani. Magwa and Tabo are the principal subordinate chiefs of this division; and as they are in close alliance with Hintza, the power of the Amatembu is really very small.

“ The third division are the Amaponda tribes, called Mambookies; whose territories extend from the Bashee to the River Umsikalia, about thirty miles beyond the St. John, or Umzimvoobo River. The Umkumkani is Fako. The principal subordinate chiefs are Umyeiki, Jali, Sobazilla, Qanda, Cetani, and Dapa, the son of an English woman wrecked on the coast. Fako is a very powerful chief, a man of talent, and much dreaded by the surrounding tribes.

“ The fourth, and last division, is the Amazoulah or Zoulah tribes, who dwell near Natal, between the Umzimvoobo River and Delagoa Bay, along the coast, and inland as far as the sources of the Orange River, bordering on the Bechuana country. These are divided into two branches, the one near Natal, under the chief Dingan, successor to Chaka; the other under Matacatzee, who resides far inland.

“ A marauding chief, named N. Capia, now resides with his people on the Umzimvoobo, under the protection of Fako; they are the descendants of the Amazoulah, and various other wandering tribes, which troubled this part of the country a few years since in consequence of having been driven by the conquests of Chaka from their original settlements. A vast number of these tribes, called Fingoes, are now found scattered throughout Cafferland, and are considered by the Caffers a very inferior race of people, in consequence of having no independent chief of their own. (See note, p. 318).

“ In travelling through the Amaponda country, the waggon path is over an undulating ridge, said to be from eight hundred to one thousand feet above the level of the sea. This ridge is broken and intersected by numerous small streams, rivers, and mountain-torrents, which after rain sometimes rise to a height of from two to three hundred feet, rushing with a violence truly terrific, while the roar of their waters resounds fearfully throughout the valleys. As all the rivers abound in cataracts, with alternate depths and shallows, they are not navigable except for a few miles from the mouth; but here again another difficulty arises, as a huge sand-bank at the entrance of almost every river prevents all access, and renders them useless as harbours. Looking from the ridge just mentioned, which is three or

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\* ‘South African Quarterly Journal,’—1833.

four miles broad, a rugged and hilly country presents itself, valleys, ravines, beds of rivers, bush and forest covering the declivities of some of the hills, while others are bare and red from the iron-ore which they contain. Caffer villages, and numerous herds of cattle grazing on the plains, the sides of the hills presenting patches of cultivated ground of all shapes, but never even by accident forming a figure to which it is possible to give a geometrical name—all these various objects contribute to relieve the eye of the traveller, wearied by the oppressive grandeur of the wild and gloomy scenery around. To the eastward the view is bounded by the sea, which is visible on a fine day; while to the left, for a distance of from fifty to sixty miles, extends a high ridge of mountains, separating the Tamboukie land from the desert country, in the direction of the Orange River. From the elevation of the ridge, there is generally a cool and refreshing breeze; and the heat is seldom unpleasant, the general level of the high ridges in this country being from eight hundred to one thousand feet above the sea; but, on descending to the villages in the deep kloofs or valleys on a hot day, the temperature is extremely oppressive. The soil is rich, especially on the flats near the margins of the rivers,\* and along the hill-sides, where the Caffers cultivate pumpkins, melons, a small species of millet called Caffer corn, and maize or Indian corn, which grows to an unusual height. Where the missionaries reside they have introduced grapes, figs, oranges, lemons, apricots, peaches, nectarines, pomegranates, quinces, mulberries, almonds, and various sorts of vegetables, which in many places flourish luxuriantly. The Amapondas grow large quantities of sweet potatoes or yams. Tobaccó is cultivated throughout the country, being usually planted on the side of the old kraals, where it thrives luxuriantly. The Amakosa tribes are the only nation that smoke it, the others preferring it ground into snuff, and mixing with it the ashes of burnt aloes, to make it more pungent. The Amapondas form their snuff-boxes out of a reed, which they thrust through the lobe of one of their ears, the spoon with which they convey it to their noses being carried in the other. The other nations usually carry their snuff in a small tortoiseshell, with a spoon attached, which they suspend to their kaross.

“ From the Bashee River to Natal, the want of rain is seldom experienced, and the grass is always green; the bush and forest extending along the mountains for several miles, while the thorny mimosa, the castor-oil plant (*Palma Christi*), the euphorbia, and aloes of various descriptions, with their crimson, yellow, and scarlet blossoms, are thickly scattered over the surface of the country. The districts, however, bordering on the colony frequently suffer severely from continued drought. During the summer months the grass is generally brown and dry, and is frequently burnt by the natives, in order that after the first rains the cattle may enjoy the new and tender herbage. Thunder-storms, accompanied with terrific flashes of lightning, are

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\* Either this differs from Mr. Moodie, or a change takes place in the geological character of the interior in proceeding to the north-east. See p. 314.

exceedingly severe during the hottest months ; and on these occasions the very mountains almost appear to tremble beneath the peals which they fearfully reverberate. The stillness of night is invariably disturbed by the incessant croaking of frogs, the number of which, and the noise they create, is truly surprising ; grasshoppers also, and various other insects in vast numbers, unite their dismal chorus to the wailing of the nocturnal breeze.

“ Beasts of prey are not particularly numerous in this part of the country, although now and then a lion, and more frequently a tiger, may be seen prowling about in the more secluded ravines and passes of the mountains. In former years elephants were abundant, but in consequence of the great increase of population they are now rarely to be seen, although the extensive forests near the Umzimvoobo River and in the vicinity of Natal contain large herds. The hippopotamus is found in all the rivers, and its flesh is much esteemed by natives, to whom it often affords a substantial repast. The rhinoceros also inhabits the thick bushy coverts ; and here the hyæna also makes its lair—an animal, as will appear from what has been already related, extremely ferocious and destructive. Great varieties of game, such as antelopes, hares, pheasants, and partridges, abound in the thinly inhabited parts of the country, but in the more populous regions are seldom met with. Baboons and monkeys are seen by hundreds at a time ; and serpents, with many other noxious reptiles, are very numerous. The birds resemble, for the most part, those found in the neighbourhood of the colony. A species of hawk makes its appearance about September, when the Amaponda tribes say it is time for them to begin clearing the ground, and they accordingly commence planting their maize ; while others are guided in these matters by the blossoming of a tree called by the Dutch the Cafferboom. The animals kept for the use of man are horned cattle, goats, and a few horses, which latter belong exclusively to the chiefs. Some of the marauding tribes possess sheep, which have been taken in former years from the Dutch boors, or Ghonaquas, in the Bechuana country. The Amapondas have a small breed of poultry about the size of the English partridge, reared exclusively for the sake of the feathers, which they use to ornament their heads : of these they are particularly proud. Copper and iron ore are found in the mountains, and specimens of silver and platina have been occasionally discovered. The country altogether bears in many particulars a strong resemblance to that described by the sacred historian,—‘ A land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths that spring out of valleys and hills ; a land whose stones are iron, and out of whose hills thou mayest dig brass.’

“ The form of government in a Caffer tribe, or rather collection of tribes, resembles the feudal system of the middle ages. The chief has respect shown to him on account of his rank, but his real power depends more upon his talents, and the strength of the clan which is especially attached to his family. The subordinate chiefs make war upon each other, and unless one of them appeals to the ‘ Umkumkani,’ no notice is taken of their quarrels, but they are allowed to settle their differences amongst themselves.

"The Umkumkani is usually a lineal descendant from the first great patriarchal chieftain of the tribe, and the title of *Inkose enkulu* is enjoyed exclusively by himself: all his male descendants are called Inkose by birthright; but their power depends in a great degree upon their popularity, the people being at liberty to attach themselves to whichever of the sons their inclination may lead them to prefer. The eldest son does not always succeed to the authority of his father and the hereditary privileges of the family. The chief having many wives, there is no established right for the first-born, but the sovereignty devolves on the offspring of the *Inkose kosi*, female chieftain, or queen. Among the Zoulahs the title of *Inkose* is solely confined to the principal chief. The term *kay*, in their language, is appended to words by way of denoting anything in the superlative degree: thus the natives, meeting an European, will cry out Umblekay, or most beautiful.

"The chief must obtain the consent of his captains previously to his marriage with the Inkose kosi; and as she usually happens to be his youngest wife, her son is generally a child when his father dies; and before he is old enough to act for himself, he finds his influence 'but a name,' his cattle devoured by his great men, and his family clan dispersed. He must, on reaching maturity, begin by degrees to resume his family authority, and should he die, as will sometimes happen, before he has fairly succeeded in consolidating his power, his son is placed in similar circumstances; so that the authority of the great chief is always kept within very confined limits. The power of the superior chiefs is restrained by the necessity under which they are placed of meeting the wishes of their subordinates, whose co-operation in their designs is entirely voluntary. On particular occasions all the warriors of the tribe assemble, and are allowed to give their opinion and advice on whatever subject may fall under consideration. Independently of these hereditary chiefs, every village or kraal has its master, who is called the '*Umunxana*,' and the chief also nominates certain members of the tribe as his '*Amapakate*,' or counsellors, who constitute the judges or magistrates of the land. One great check on the tyranny of individual rulers is the acknowledged right of one chief to receive and shelter those who may fly to him for protection from another. If a chief can overtake a man who is running away from him, he is allowed to put him to death; but if the fugitive succeeds in safely reaching the district of another chief, he is never molested.

"The principal engine of Caffer despotism is the charge of witchcraft. The *Amaqira*, as the witch-doctor is called among the Ama-ponda, supplies the place of an inquisitor, and when employed as the tool of a cunning, unprincipled chief, he enables him to overcome all opposition. When a petty chief has offended his superior, a hint is sufficient for the witch-doctor to accuse him, particularly if he is rich, as the Amaqira knows that the superior chiefs will protect him. When an accusation is once made, the supposed culprit has no means of defending himself, but is seized and put to the torture, frequently confessing in the hope of escaping further punishment, but death in

its most cruel forms usually terminates his sufferings, when his cattle are seized and divided amongst the most active and zealous of his enemies. This system prevailed to a dreadful extent throughout the land previously to the establishment of missions, and even now it is by no means an uncommon occurrence, although concealed as much as possible from the observation of Europeans.

"Crimes of all kinds are commonly atoned for by pecuniary fines, unless in the case of robberies committed on the property of a chief; then the punishment of death is usually inflicted. When cattle are missing, the owner endeavours to track the 'spoor' of the animals until he discovers their retreat; and should he succeed in tracing them to a kraal, the people residing at the place are accountable, and must either assist in obtaining their restoration, or pay a fine which is generally proportioned to the number lost. Very little disgrace is attached to the thief: if not detected he is considered a lucky fellow, but should he be discovered he is then said to be unfortunate: should he, however, be repeatedly thus unfortunate, the people of his kraal become incensed at being involved in trouble and loss of cattle through his misdemeanours, and he is ultimately obliged to escape for his life.

"Among the Ama-ponda, where game is scarce, owing to the dense population, certain restrictions are enforced, and men of influential property claim the right of hunting in particular forests, allowing no intrusion without their permission being first obtained. There is no private property in land, except what is derived from actual occupancy; for when a man ceases to cultivate his ground another is at liberty to take it. Cattle are permitted to graze at large without interruption, but the owners are responsible for any damage they may occasion to the cultivated lands.

"A Caffer law-suit sometimes lasts for two or three generations; and many an unfortunate fellow has to suffer in his own person the punishment of his great grandfather's guilt. Most of their litigations arise from runaway wives, the husband claiming the cattle he paid for his wife, and the friends of the woman refusing to restore her without additional remuneration, alleging his cruelty to have been the cause of her seeking their protection. The point in dispute is whether the woman absconded or was driven away by ill treatment, and this is frequently a question very difficult to decide.

"The Caffers in general, with the exception of the Zoulah tribes, wear no covering but a kaross, which is formed of an ox-hide rendered soft and pliant, and hangs loosely over their shoulders, in the manner of a cloak. The Amakosa smear their bodies with a composition of red clay and grease, which produces a soft and glossy effect on the skin; and their short woolly hair is rolled into small round knobs, by a profuse application of the same material. The ornaments of the men are armlets of brass or ivory, and many wear girdles of slight metal chains round their loins, together with strings of blue and white beads suspended from their necks. Their equipments for war have been previously described in the account of the sham-fight which was exhibited for our amusement at Botuman's

Kraal. The Amaponda dress their hair in a form somewhat resembling that of a counsellor's wig, ornamenting it with feathers and red berries; but they are now beginning to adopt the Zoulah custom of shaving the head, leaving only a tuft of hair on the crown, which they adorn with feathers. The females wear a small apron round their loins, which is fancifully decorated with various-coloured beads, and over the bosom is a soft covering of leather, slightly ornamented in a similar manner. A short skin petticoat reaches halfway down the leg, and their outer garment is the same large mantle as that of the men, which covers the whole body. Down the back of this cloak is suspended a long strip of leather, ornamented with three rows of buttons. According to their rank and respectability they possess strings of various-coloured beads, which are worn round their necks. The head-dress varies according to the taste and custom of the different nations; some using the cap, which has been already noticed, others colouring their hair with black and red clay, while the Zoulah women have their heads shaved completely bare.

"The colour of the Caffers differs from a shade of brown or copper hue to a deep black, but the latter is by no means common. The snuff-boxes which they wear in their ears, and the copper and ivory rings with which all the Caffer tribes adorn their wrists and ankles, destroy the effect which their fine symmetrical limbs would otherwise produce in the sight of Europeans.

"The first fruits of the season are not allowed to be gathered in without permission from the great chief. When they are brought as an offering to the captain, dancing and other festivities usher in this joyful season. There is some wisdom in this sumptuary law, as the people are so improvident, that, were there no restraint imposed, they would consume a large portion of their corn while it was green, altogether without any regard to their future wants. A singular custom prevails amongst the tribe on the death of a man, his relatives being obliged to present an ox to the chief, by way of consoling him for the loss he has sustained through the death of one of his subjects.

"In consequence of the indolent habits of the Amakosa and Amatembou tribes, who leave the cultivation of their lands entirely to the female part of the community, while the men lead a pastoral life in attending their cattle, occasionally enjoying the pleasures of the chase, they are frequently deprived of the fruits of the earth, and suffer much privation in consequence; but among the Amaponda, where the men usually work as well as the women, this is seldom the case, except when war prevents their attending to agricultural pursuits. Their huts, which have the form of a hemisphere, are from eighteen to twenty feet in diameter, and from six to seven feet high; they are generally built by the women, poles being first stuck into the earth, from which flexible boughs are arched over the top. This bower-shaped wattle-work is then thatched with straw, and plastered over with clay or cow-dung. A small aperture is left for the door, which is formed of basket-work, and usually screened by a rustic kind of portal. The fire-place is formed in the centre, and the only opening for the escape of the smoke is the doorway: to this may be attributed



in a great measure the circumstance of the inmates of these rude dwellings being so frequently afflicted with weak and sore eyes. The floor is usually composed of the earth of ant-hills, which by long exposure to the heat of the sun has become dry and hardened, being thus well adapted for the purpose, and producing a smooth and even surface.

"A few mats to sit and sleep on, a smaller one to hold the food when dressed, a few coarse earthen pots of native manufacture for cooking, a basket of peculiar workmanship, so closely woven as to be capable of containing liquid, and a bundle of assagais or spears, constitute the furniture of a Caffer hut. In that of a wealthy Caffer there is usually a milk-sack made of bullock's hide, so closely sewn together as to prevent leakage, and capable of containing several gallons, but the poorer classes are content to keep their milk in calabashes. The food of these people varies with the seasons; their principal support is milk and a coarse description of unleavened bread, made from a kind of millet called Caffer corn, roughly ground between two stones. Meat is only eaten on great occasions, such as marriages and other festivals, or when they are obliged to kill an ox for the support of their wives while engaged in the duties of cultivating the land and suckling their infants; or at the time when karosses are required for the use of their families, which seldom happens more than once a year, and amongst the poorer classes not so frequently. They never eat salt, to which they have a decided aversion. The milk is poured into a leathern sack as before described, which being placed in the sun, soon curdles; a mess of this with a little Caffer corn, or a head of Indian corn either boiled or roasted, is in their estimation a most delicious repast. They preserve their corn in holes, dug for the purpose, in the centre of their cattle kraal, covering it with manure, which being trodden down and well hardened, generally protects it from the wet, and where they consider it as being more secure from the attacks of marauders. Should it prove occasionally rather musty, it is by no means considered unpalatable, but on the contrary possesses a flavour agreeable to their taste.

"In most countries the ingenuity of men has discovered some stimulating draughts calculated to produce intoxication. Even the poor Bushman in his season of prosperity, when the bees have been propitious to him, by depositing their honey within his reach in caves and holes of the earth, mixes it with water, and causing it to ferment, prepares a liquid which if drank in large quantities has a stupefying effect. The Caffers brew a description of beer from their corn, not unpalatable, and when taken in large quantities causing intoxication, which is soon discovered by their frantic gestures and the extraordinary excitement into which they are thrown. The general disposition of the Caffer is cheerful, with an apparent indifference to the future. Hunting, dancing, mock-fights, and singing, are their principal amusements. On proceeding to the chase, a considerable number of them assemble, and, accompanied by their dogs, encircle a large space of country within which they are sure of game, and gradually closing their ranks, they spear the animals as they endeavour to make their

escape. The spoils are then divided among them, but the skins of the animals are the property of the man who first summoned the party.

"Like more civilized nations, they frequently amuse themselves with warlike evolutions: their sham-fights, however, not unfrequently lead to exhibitions of a different character and terminate in scenes of blood.

"They dance every fine night, when the noise they make in singing and stamping upon the ground, as they beat time with their feet, causes the neighbouring valleys to resound with their wild and savage mirth. They frequently work themselves up to such a degree of frenzy, that they throw themselves exhausted on the ground, where they often remain for some time, and the dew being heavy, coughs, colds, and consumptions thus become extremely prevalent among them. They sometimes assemble together in a hut, and amuse themselves the greater part of the night by singing: their song, however, if song it can be called, only consists of a monotonous and unmeaning repetition of 'Yo, yo, yo,' or 'Jei, jei, jei.'

"The Zoulahs differ from the tribes thus described with respect to their songs, in the composition of which their Chief Chaka was said to have been so celebrated as to have produced a new song on the subject of his wars and other inspiring themes every month.

"Before they sit down to eat meat in company, the Caffers are very careful to immerse their hands in fresh cow-dung, wiping them on the grass, which is considered the perfection of cleanliness. Except an occasional plunge in a river, they never wash themselves, and consequently their bodies are covered with vermin. On a fine day their karosses are spread out in the sun, and as their tormentors creep forth they are doomed to destruction. It often happens that one Caffer performs for another the kind office of collecting these insects, in which case he preserves the entomological specimens, carefully delivering them to the person to whom they originally appertained, supposing, according to their theory, that as they derived their support from the blood of the man from whom they were taken, should they be killed by another, the blood of his neighbour would be in his possession, thus placing in his hands the power of some superhuman influence. For the same reason when a man is bled, an operation to which they have frequent recourse, or requires his hair to be cut, he carefully buries what is taken from him in some secret spot, and the same superstition prevails even to the paring of his nails.

"The Amaponda Caffers have three professions—that of the 'Amagira,' or witch-doctor; of the 'Abanisi-bamvula,' or rain-maker; and of the 'Agika,' or doctor of medicine, which may be considered the most valuable of the three. The 'Agika' is acquainted with many valuable roots, which are used both internally and as embrocations. Dr. Morgan remarks, in a paper recently read at the South African Institution, Cape of Good Hope, 'There are not many diseases peculiar to these people. The *tænia* (tape-worm) appears to be the only one that can be called endemic: dyspnœa, sicca, and rheumatism are not uncommon complaints, most probably produced by smoking

noxious herbs, fatigue, and exposure to atmospheric changes. Paralysis and glandular swellings are also complaints to which they appear subject. In their treatment of disease, no regard appears to be paid to the character of the complaint; the treatment is generally loss of blood by a rough sort of operation, consisting of scarifying and drawing blood after the manner of cupping amongst us. Roots are infused in water which communicate a purgative quality, and sometimes an emetic root is given to the sick person. In pains and aches of the bones and limbs, they burn a preparation similar to the moxa; they have lately substituted gunpowder when it can be obtained.'

"They are subject to a variety of other diseases which baffle the skill of their medical advisers, who in such cases have recourse to smearing the patient with cow-dung, and keeping up his spirits with the constant excitement of dancing and singing within his hut. Should he still continue sick, he is supposed to be bewitched, and then the 'Amaqira' is called in. The medical men are well paid, and if the patient be poor, the people of the kraal where he lives are responsible for the remuneration. In fact the man who fetches a doctor usually carries with him either a calf or a quantity of beads and assagais, as an inducement for his immediate attendance."—vol. i. p. 247-268.

We add also the following account of the district of Albany:—

"Albany is situated at the eastern extremity of the colony. Graham's Town is the principal town of the eastern province, and contains 2000 inhabitants; it lies in a valley surrounded by hills. It consists of 600 houses, from the humble cottage to the stately mansion, displaying little uniformity of arrangement, yet rendered pleasing by the gardens and cultivated grounds with which the different edifices are intermingled. In the middle of the principal street stands the church, a plain Gothic building, forming one of the most prominent objects to the eye of the stranger on entering the town. It also contains chapels belonging to the Wesleyan, Baptist, and Independent connexions, public and infant schools, a gaol of a quadrangular form, a reading-room, two tanneries, two subscription libraries, a printing-office (from which a newspaper has been established, entitled the 'Graham's Town Journal,' which is conducted with considerable spirit), and two breweries. Many other useful establishments are continually forming. The attention given to education in this district reflects the highest credit on the inhabitants in general, and may be considered a sure earnest of its ultimate prosperity. Government has done much to foster and encourage the progress of education by the appointment of schoolmasters at different stations, with suitable allowances, providing eligible school-rooms, and furnishing them with the necessary materials. These schools, although unquestionably productive of much good, are not so popular, nor so well suited to the circumstances of the people, as Sunday and evening schools, which have been established, and are supported by private individuals. The children of a majority of the settlers are obliged to tend cattle, or afford other assistance equally essential, at an early age, and so indis-

pensable are their services, that only on Sunday, or after the close of their daily labour, can they devote any time to the acquisition of intellectual knowledge.

“ Limited, however, as these opportunities are, yet the progress made by the children is highly encouraging; while the attention paid by the inhabitants at large to the subject, and the great care taken to diffuse the benefits of education as extensively as possible among all classes, cannot fail to raise the British settlers in Albany to a high scale among liberal and enlightened people. The number of children under instruction in this district, at a moderate computation, cannot be less than one thousand four hundred, which gives the rate of one to every seven of the entire population.

“ The trade of Albany is of great importance, and has arisen entirely since the arrival of the British settlers. Until that period, raw hides and horns were considered of little value; nor were the native tribes on our border considered in any other light than that of incorrigible and daring plunderers, whom it was praiseworthy to shoot whenever detected within the colonial line of demarcation. Now the annual value of those articles exported from Graham’s Town amounts to no less a sum than 33,634*l.*; while, in peaceable times, the principles of trade are as well understood by the Caffers as by more civilized nations.

“ In addition to hides and horns, Albany exports, from Algoa Bay, ivory, ostrich-feathers, tallow, butter, buck-skins, and several other articles of minor importance. The following abstract, compiled from authenticated accounts furnished by the different traders in Graham’s Town, showing an increase in the exports of the year 1831, beyond those of the preceding year, to the extent of 1150*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.*, will indicate in a forcible manner the rising importance of the frontier trade:

	£.	s.	d.
Ivory . . . . .	1,800	7	6
Green hides . . . . .	18,145	4	0
Dry . . . . .	11,886	0	0
Sole leather . . . . .	504	0	0
Horns . . . . .	3,600	0	0
Buck and sheep skins . . . . .	2,400	0	0
Ditto, tanned . . . . .	100	0	0
Tallow . . . . .	4,820	12	0
Butter . . . . .	3,080	10	0
Soap . . . . .	230	15	0
Wool . . . . .	407	4	0
Ostrich-feathers . . . . .	303	0	0
Salted beef and pork . . . . .	3,700	0	0
Wheat . . . . .	95	0	0
Wheaten-meal . . . . .	78	0	0
Candles . . . . .	100	0	0
Aloes . . . . .	10	0	0
Barley . . . . .	30	0	0
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	£ 51,290	12	6

A considerable portion of this produce has been shipped from Port Elizabeth direct to Europe; but the greater part was remitted to mercantile houses in Cape Town, in exchange for the manufactures

of Europe and India, the demand for which is so considerable, that the balance of trade is largely against the district.

“The public market at Graham’s Town, which is held every day except Sundays, exhibits a very lively and amusing scene. Here is to be met the farmer from the most distant extremities of the colony, with his waggon laden with curiosities, such as skins of wild animals, ostrich-feathers, ivory, and the rude but deadly weapon of the Bushmen and Bechuanas. Here also is to be seen (or was before the war) the enterprising settler, just returned from a six months’ trading journey to the interior, with a cargo of hides or ivory, together with the rich fur dresses or cloaks of the natives of distant regions, visited by him in his peregrinations. By the market register it appears, that between the 1st of October, 1831, and 30th of September, 1832, one thousand nine hundred and six waggons entered the market laden with produce; and that the following quantities of the several articles enumerated were there sold to the highest bidders. The average of the current prices is also given:—

			£.	s.	d.
Brandy . . . . .	89	leaguers .	12	0	0
Wine . . . . .	4	ditto .	5	0	0
Meal . . . . .	4,042	muids .	1	1	0
Wheat . . . . .	320	do. .	1	0	0
Barley . . . . .	1,757	do. .	0	4	6
Oats . . . . .	1,175	do. .	0	3	0
Indian corn . . . . .	153	do. .	6	6	0
Salt . . . . .	1,840	lbs. .	0	0	3½
Raisins . . . . .	9,905	do. .	0	0	3½
Tobacco . . . . .	14,914	do. .	0	0	3
Bed feathers . . . . .	139	do. .	0	2	9
Wool . . . . .	3,243	do. .	0	0	6
Tiger skins . . . . .	77	do. .	0	12	0
Raw or green hides . . . . .	10,730	do. .	0	10	6
Dry ditto . . . . .	487	do. .	0	4	0
Buck skins . . . . .	11,130	do. .	0	1	3
Horns . . . . .	24,663	per hundred	2	5	0
Kid and calf skins . . . . .	2,564	each	0	2	6
Oat hay . . . . .	159,203	per 100 lbs.	0	3	0
Oxen . . . . .	100	each	1	5	0
Cows . . . . .	90	each	1	0	0

“The manufactures of this district are at present inconsiderable, and do not furnish a surplus of any commodity beyond the consumption of the inhabitants.

“Artisans, as tailors, smiths, carpenters, &c. have established themselves in every part of this district; and, at Bathurst, two West of England clothiers have commenced successfully to manufacture blankets and kersey from the wool produced in this settlement; hats, light and durable, are also made at Graham’s Town from the same material. Undertakings of this kind, and indeed the inhabitants in general, labour under very serious disabilities from the want of sufficient assistants. Servants of all descriptions are difficult to be obtained, and when engaged are seldom retained in service for any length of time. The industrious and steady very soon earn the means of commencing on their own account; but the idle and dissipated

contrive to follow the bent of their inclinations without engaging in any regular employment. An attempt has recently been made to establish a 'Society for the purpose of encouraging, by every means, the introduction of working-hands from the United Kingdom to this district.' The subject of emigration has of late much engrossed the attention of the British Parliament, in the course of which this colony has been entirely overlooked. This can arise from no other cause than the strong prejudice excited by the general currency which has been given to wilful misrepresentations of its capabilities to absorb and comfortably maintain a very considerable number of the working-classes. Such, however, is the fact; and it may also be affirmed, that there is no country where a new settler, on his first arrival, has less inconvenience to endure, where labour is more in request, or where, in proportion to the cheapness of the necessaries of life, the moderate exercise of industry claims so high a remuneration.

"The following will show the average rates paid for labour in this district:—

	£.	s.	d.	
Mechanics . . . .	0	5	0	per diem
Labourers (European) . . . .	0	3	9	ditto
Ditto (free coloured) . . . .	0	1	6	ditto
House-Servant (European) . . . .	2	5	0	per ann.
Ditto, or waggon-driver (free coloured)	0	15	0	ditto

} Without food  
or clothes.  
} With food  
and lodging.

"A great part of the district is unsuited to sheep farming. Along the coast, for some considerable distance inland, the great humidity of the sea air, and the rank and luxuriant quality of the grasses, render sheep liable to many diseases which do not prevail in dryer situations. There is, however, a very large portion of the district so well suited for sheep husbandry, that there is every reason to believe wool will shortly become its staple export. From the experiments which have been made by crossing the native sheep with pure Merino rams, wool of a most excellent quality has been produced, and the proprietors have been amply repaid for their laudable perseverance.

"The number of fine-woolled sheep in Albany at the end of 1831 is estimated at fifteen thousand two hundred, being an increase of five thousand two hundred from the preceding year. Since that period a very considerable addition has been made, of which it is not possible now to furnish correct details; but when we consider that attention has only been turned to this pursuit within the last few years, the progress which has been made is highly encouraging.\* The whole of the country between the Konap and Fish Rivers, recently appropriated by the Commissioner General, is admirably adapted for sheep-farming, and is capable of supporting an immense number. The old prejudice, which formerly existed in favour of the common large-tailed

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\* "Exports of Wool from Port Elizabeth.

1830 . . . . .	£222 Sterling.
1831 . . . . .	551 "
1832 . . . . .	931 "
1833 . . . . .	2372 "

sheep, is fast disappearing before the indubitable evidence which has of late been presented to the farmer of this district, of the superiority of woolled-sheep.

"The climate of Albany is temperate and salubrious, and may be pronounced highly congenial to a European constitution, and eminently restorative to such constitutions as have been impaired by the enervating effects of a tropical sun. The cold is never severe, the thermometer in the depth of winter being seldom below freezing point, while the heat of summer is rarely oppressive.

"No tropical fruits arrive at perfection in Albany. The orange does not ripen until the winter is far advanced, and never attains that degree of excellence which it is found to possess in warmer climates. Bananas and similar fruits never reach maturity. The peach, apricot, apple, pear, quince, pomegranate, almond, walnut, and several others of a like description, grow with great rapidity, producing abundance of fruit of good quality. It has not been fully ascertained whether the climate is perfectly congenial to the growth of the vine. Several vineyards have been planted, which have produced returns of fine fruits, but in general the north and west winds, which prevail during the summer months, have been found very detrimental; and the most sanguine are compelled to relinquish the hope that Albany will ever produce wine of such quality as would be worthy of attention, considered as an article of export.

"Although a considerable portion of the district is covered with wood, it does not furnish useful timber of any great variety, or in any considerable quantity. The Geel-hout, *Taxus elongatus*, or yellow wood, attains to a considerable growth, and is used for all the purposes of house-building; it is, however, greatly affected by the variations of the atmosphere, and by no means durable. The other woods most in request and found in Albany are red and white milk, red and white else, red and white pear, saffran, iron-wood, assagai-wood, and sneeze-wood. Albany does not present a very wide field for the research of the geologist. Fossils, or minerals, of any scarcity or celebrity, have never been found, nor are there any mountains or hills of extraordinary elevation or formation. Indications of iron ore may be seen in every direction, but it is doubtful whether the quantity of ore to be found in any one place would pay for collecting it. Manganese is also frequently met with. Limestone is found in abundance near the sea-coast. The principal quarries which have been worked are situated between Bathurst and the Great Fish River, but the quantity prepared for sale is much less than formerly, when, on the first establishment of the district and for several years afterwards, every kind of building material was in great demand. Stone for building purposes is found in every part of the district, and numerous quarries have been opened, particularly one near Bathurst, of an indurated limestone, much resembling in appearance freestone, of a whitish-yellow colour. It is easily worked when first quarried, and is readily cut into square blocks for building, but hardens on being exposed to the atmosphere."—vol. i. p. 293—304.

The following introduction to the chapter on the Zoology of the Colony seems also worthy of a place :—

“ To form a just estimate of the peculiar characters which distinguish the natural productions of any particular country, it is necessary to take into account the leading features of its physical geography, to attend to the magnitude and direction of its principal rivers and mountain-chains, and to study the effects which these circumstances necessarily produce upon the general temperature and climate due to the latitude of the place. In the case of Africa, this is perhaps more necessary than in that of any other continent ; for though placed for the most part within the tropics, and therefore inheriting, at it were, from nature a considerable uniformity of climate throughout its whole extent, the alternations of mountain and plain, of open karroo and forest, of rich arable and barren desert, are so common and so extensive, that the productions of all other quarters of the world may be said to find a congenial habitation in some part of it. The whole northern portion of the continent, as is well known, is occupied by the chain of the Atlas mountains and their various ramifications, which rise in some instances above the snow line, and give origin to various rivers and streams which pour themselves into the Mediterranean or Atlantic, and fertilize the rich plains of Barbary and Morocco. On the eastern part of the continent again, the lofty chains of Samen and Taranta, and the Kong or Mountains of the Moon, penetrate far into the interior, and form a succession of elevated terraces and table-lands throughout Abyssinia and the surrounding countries ; whilst the extreme south is occupied by the Nieuwveld, Sneeuwberg, and other mountains extending beyond Tembia and Delagoa, of less importance, but which nevertheless do not fail to produce very essential modifications upon the climate and temperature of the country. All these parts of Africa, as they enjoy the climate, so likewise do they possess the productions of the temperate zone, mixed, it is true, with the more usual inhabitants of the tropics, but still preserving a decidedly temperate character. Thus we find the bear, the stag, the moufflon, and the wild boar, as common in Northern Africa as in any part of Europe ; and although the lion and the panther are likewise inhabitants of the same localities, yet it must not be forgotten that these formidable animals, at least the lion, were as common in Macedon and Bœotia in the time of the ancient Greeks, as they are in any part of Africa at the present day.

“ The next grand feature in the physical geography of Africa, which it is necessary to notice as affecting the character of its natural productions, is the great extent of desert which occupies various large portions of this continent, and which is for the most part without elevations and destitute of water. The deserts of Africa, however, differ very considerably in their particular characters, though they agree in the great outline of their features. The Sahara, or Great Desert, for instance, which occupies the entire face of the country between the Atlas mountains on the north, and the rich and fertile



valleys of the Senegal, Gambia, and Niger, on the south, consists entirely of low rocky hills, and boundless extents of moving sands, parched and pulverized by the intense heat of a tropical sun, with here and there an oasis, or wadey, as they are called by the Arabs, where a patch of verdure and a few date-trees surround an occasional spring. In such a country, it may be easily supposed, living inhabitants are not to be found; and indeed, unless it be a few jerboas or other similar animals in the neighbourhood of the wadeys, or an occasional flock of gazelles or ostriches on the outskirts of the desert, the Sahara may be said to be altogether destitute of inhabitants. But the case is widely different with respect to the deserts of South Africa. The characters of these deserts are altogether different from that of the Sahara; though, like it, consisting of a sandy soil, yet the staple is firmly united by the fibres and roots of various plants, which draw a certain portion of nourishment at all times even from the parched soil of the karroos, and which in the rainy season cover the whole country with rich and spontaneous verdure. The karroos of Southern and Central Africa are thus similar in their principal characters to the steppes of Northern Asia, excepting that their intertropical position, and the consequent changes of dry and rainy seasons, give the Central African deserts a variety which the Asiatic do not possess. It also adapts them much better to the support of animal life, particularly for the support of such graminivorous animals as possess speed of foot to enable them to traverse great distances in a short space of time, in search of the often widely-dispersed situations in which their congenial food is to be found. Accordingly, no country abounds with such innumerable flocks of antelopes, gazelles, &c., or with such numberless varieties and species of these animals as the karroos of Southern and Central Africa. Out of nearly seventy species which naturalists have enumerated as belonging to the antelope genus, no fewer than fifty are proper to Africa, and of these upwards of twenty-five have been found within the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, or in the countries immediately bordering upon it towards the east and north. This is certainly one of the most singular circumstances in African zoology, or indeed in the geographical distribution of animals over the surface of the earth; and it is rendered still more interesting by the fact, that of the deer tribe, the genus of ruminating animals, which, next to the antelopes, is most abundant in species, two only out of nearly thirty species are known to exist in any part of this continent, and even these confined to the valleys of the Atlas mountains.

“Generally speaking, the antelopes are gregarious and unite in large herds, either permanently, or at particular seasons of the year, but only for the sake of migrating in search of more abundant and grateful pasturage; some species, however, reside in pairs or small families, consisting of an old male and one or more females, with the young of the two foregoing seasons. They are always extremely cautious in guarding against surprise, placing sentinels in various directions about their feeding ground, to warn them of the approach

of danger, while grazing or reposing; and their vision and sense of smell are so acute, that it is only by using the greatest caution and circumspection that the hunter can bring them within range of the gun. The names by which the animals themselves are distinguished in all languages, ancient as well as modern, have a direct reference to this quickness of sight, and to the brilliancy of the large black eyes, which form so conspicuous a feature in the antelopes. Thus the word *dorcas* (δορκάς), the Greek and Roman name of the gazelle, or common Barbary antelope, is derived from the verb *δερκομαι*, to see. The common English word antelope, which zoologists have adopted as the generic name of the group, is a corrupt form of the term *ἀνθολοψ*, employed by Eustathius to designate an animal of this genus, and literally signifying *bright eyes*; and according to the learned Bochart, *Tabitha*, the name of the disciple raised to life at Joppa, is derived from *tzebi*, the Hebrew name of the common gazelle, and alludes likewise to the beauty of its eyes. Among the Greeks and Romans also, as we learn from Agathias and others, *dorcas*, *dorcalis*, and *damalis*, all names of different antelopes, were common names of women likewise, bestowed, without doubt, on account of the remarkable beauty of their eyes; and Prosper Alpinus and more recent travellers inform us, that ‘Aine el czazel—you have the eyes of an antelope,’ is the greatest compliment which at the present day an Oriental admirer can pay to his mistress. Eastern poetry and romance, as well as the works of the Greeks and Romans, abound with similes and metaphors taken from the form and habits of these animals: they are universally the images of gentleness and timidity, of grace and fleetness. The inspired writer beautifully compares the speed of Asahel to that of the wild gazelle; the Gadites also are said to have been as swift as mountain gazelles—for this is the proper signification of the Hebrew word *tzebi*, improperly translated *roe* in our English version of the Scriptures; and many other instances might be adduced, both from sacred and profane writers. Throughout all parts of the East, the fleetness and timidity of the antelope tribe is still proverbial, and furnishes the Persian and Arab poets with images of gentleness, beauty, grace, and affection. The swiftest dogs and horses are left far behind in the pursuit of these animals, and it is only by stratagem that they can be hunted with success.

“For this purpose the hawk or the cheetah (*felis jubata*) is commonly employed in the East, and the *roer*, or various descriptions of snares and traps, by the inhabitants of South Africa. The hawk, by attacking the animal about the head and eyes, harasses it and impedes its flight, till the hunter has time to come up; and the cheetah, like the rest of the cat kind, steals upon it unawares, and seizes it by a sudden spring before it has time for flight. If, however, the first spring misses in its aim, and the antelope escapes, there is no chance of taking it afterwards, and the cheetah, irritated by disappointment, is soothed only with considerable difficulty, and becomes unfit for the chase for some days afterwards. Bushmen often destroy vast numbers of the antelopes with which their country abounds, by poisoning

the springs and reservoirs to which they are known to resort; nor is the flesh ever known to be injured by this mode of slaughter: they also shoot them with poisoned arrows, but in this case the parts immediately around the wound must be cut out before the rest of the body imbibes the poison, which would otherwise penetrate through it, and render it unfit for food.

“The precise nature of the habitat frequented by these animals has nothing of a uniform character, but, as might naturally be expected from the different modifications of organic structure observable throughout the genus, differs according to the particular species. Some frequent the dry sandy deserts, and feed upon the stunted acacias and bulbous plants which spring up even in the most arid situations, where the stony nature of the ground gives a certain degree of adherence to the soil; some prefer the open stony plains, the steppes of Central Asia, and karroos of Southern Africa, where the grass, though parched, is still sufficient for their subsistence; some again inhabit the steep rocky mountains, and leap from cliff to cliff with the ease and security of a wild goat, whilst others are found only in the thick and almost impenetrable forests of tropical countries.

“Three different and beautifully-marked species of the horse genus, the zebra, the dauw, and the quagga, likewise inhabit the plains and karroos of Southern and Central Africa, and the graceful *zerapha* or camelopard is occasionally found in small herds traversing the sandy plains, and picking up a scanty subsistence from the prickly acacias which abound in many parts of the desert. In unusually dry seasons, when the ordinary supply of vegetation fails on the karroos of the interior, innumerable flocks of these animals migrate southward in search of more abundant pastures, and thus new species are often encountered within the colonial boundary which had never been seen south of the Orange River before, and which perhaps do not make their appearance in the same localities for many years afterwards.

“The migration of the spring-boks, or treck-bokken, which is of more frequent occurrence than in any other species of antelope, as I have had occasion already to notice, is much dreaded by the farmers of the Sneeuwberg district, as from the countless multitudes of animals which unite upon these occasions to emigrate in search of more abundant pastures, every green thing soon disappears from the surface of the earth, and the fields are left as bare and parched as if a cloud of locusts had rested on them. Hares, jerboas, and other different species of small rodent animals, are likewise found in great abundance upon these karroos; and, of course, where such variety of graminivorous and herbivorous animals are found, it is but natural to suppose that there will be no lack of carnivorous and ferocious beasts to prey upon them. We find accordingly that many different species of such animals abound in Southern Africa. The lion, the leopard, and the cheetah, make their prey of the different kinds of antelopes, and sometimes of the chackma, or large baboon of the country, which,

with a small monkey, *Cercopithecus Erythropyga*, is the only quadrumanous animal found within the British colony: the lynx and various smaller species of cats are destructive principally among birds and small arborial quadrupeds, which their power of climbing trees, and creeping through bushes, places within their reach. Three different species of hyænas, called wolves at the Cape, with innumerable smaller carnivorous quadrupeds, prowl about in search of dead carcasses, or whatever else they can manage to surprise and overcome."—vol. ii. pp. 85-94.

Mr. Steedman's work further contains some interesting Appendices, especially the first, entitled "Particulars regarding the Expedition lately dispatched from Cape Town, for the purpose of exploring Central Africa" (most of which have been already published in this Journal, vol. iv. pp. 363-72): "with an Account of the Progress of Discovery in South Africa up to the period of the Departure of the Expedition: by J. C. Chase, Esq., Honorary Secretary to the Committee for conducting the Expedition." (This latter portion of the Paper in question is here incomplete, only fragments of it having been selected from the South African Quarterly Journal, in which it was first published; but it gives a distinct, though rapid, outline of the progress of geographical discovery in this quarter; and, whether entire or as reduced in Mr. Steedman's pages, will be consulted with advantage by all to whom the subject treated in it is not very well known.) The interest of this Appendix does not, however, terminate even here. It concludes with a detailed account, in the form of a letter, of the latest journey into the interior from the Cape; viz., a Journey across the Bechuana country north of Latakou, by Mr. A. G. Bain, already known as a traveller in the same direction. On the present occasion he has been singularly unfortunate, for having penetrated as far, apparently, as about 25° S. (no positions being given in his Letter, they can only be inferred), his party was attacked by the well-known Zoulah chief Malakatze; and being totally routed, he, with great difficulty and after undergoing great fatigue, was only enabled to return within the colony by sacrificing all his collections. For the sake of Dr. Smith and his party, who may have occasion to proceed in the same direction, it is to be hoped that some remonstrance may be made regarding this outrage, and some satisfaction obtained for it: meantime it seems to have entirely prevented Mr. Bain from adding now to the information which he himself procured in the same direction in 1829, when in company with Mr. Biddulph.

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